

# The Journal of Educational Sociology

*A Magazine of Theory and Practice*

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No. 10

Editorial . . . . .	579
The Relation of Educational Psychology to Educational Sociology . . . . .	Frank N. Freeman 580
A Child Who Feared Teachers . . . . .	William Clark Trow 590
How Much of the Metric System?—An Attempt At Applying Educational Sociology . . . . .	Stephen G. Rich 602
Commercial Teacher-Training Curricula . . . . .	Herbert A. Tonne 610
Research Projects and Methods in Educational Sociology . . . . .	621
Book Reviews . . . . .	625
News from the Field . . . . .	640
Contributors' Page . . . . .	642

# The Journal of Educational Sociology

## *A Magazine of Theory and Practice*

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# The JOURNAL of EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

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## EDITORIAL

With this issue of THE JOURNAL the third year of its history comes to an end. The editors wish to take this opportunity of thanking the readers and contributors for their fine coöperation during this period of its infancy. The success of THE JOURNAL is due to, and must continue to be, the result of the splendid coöperation the editors have received both from readers and contributors.

The period of infancy has not been lived through without the diseases incident to that period of existence, but THE JOURNAL has lived, and with the same coöperation we have had in the past, its success is guaranteed. Editorially we close this volume with a feeling of gratitude to all those who have made THE JOURNAL the success it has been.

## CERTAIN NUMBERS OF VOLUME I OF THE JOURNAL ARE WANTED

The University of Illinois has asked the librarian of the New York University Library at Washington Square to supply it with Nos. 1, 3, and 6 to complete a set of Volume I of THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY. Will a reader who is willing to sell these numbers kindly communicate with Mr. Nelson W. McCombs, New York University, Washington Square East, New York, N. Y.?

## THE RELATION OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY TO EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

FRANK N. FREEMAN

One of the most obvious of the relations between educational psychology and educational sociology is the relation in age. A recently elected university president who has attracted wide comments because of his youthfulness remarked in his first address to the students that he was especially glad to meet them because they were the first persons he had met in his new position who were younger than he. Furthermore, he said, they always would be younger than he. This is somewhat the way a representative of the young discipline, educational psychology, feels in discussing the relations of his subject to the still younger discipline, educational sociology. Sensitive as he is to the taunt that is sometimes thrown in his face that his is a pseudoscience, thrown to be sure most often by the jealous representatives of wholly nonscientific disciplines, he is quick to take the opportunity of taking counsel with those whose scientific techniques is still newer than his own.

It may be worth while to begin by reviewing briefly some of the characteristic features in educational psychology and its development.

Educational psychology has gone through three fairly clearly marked stages, with some overlapping between the successive periods of development. Each of these stages is marked by a characteristic method or technique.

The first stage is represented in the writings of such men as Rousseau, Locke, Froebel, and to a lesser degree of Herbert Spencer. It still persists, moreover, in some of our current writings. These writings are characterized predominantly by what may be called the philosophical point of view. Rousseau believed in freedom as a general philosophical doctrine. He exalted nature and deprecated

everything that seemed to him to interfere with the unrestricted operation of natural processes. Hence he had deep confidence in the child's natural impulses and in his spontaneous development. The procedures which he advocated were mainly the outgrowth of his philosophical views. Locke, on the other hand, held an empirical philosophy. The mind is a wax tablet, and what it becomes depends on the sensations which are produced by the stimulation of objects in the external world and the ideas which are formed by the combinations of these sensations. Hence Locke trusted education and believed that it is responsible for nine tenths of the individual's character. Froebel was a mystic, and he developed a series of educational materials and worked out a set of procedures which represented symbolically what he regarded as the great philosophical concepts. Spencer, being an evolutionist, applied the evolutionary theory to the child and his training—as for example, in the theory of recapitulation. All these men, of course, as do men using any technique, supplemented their fundamental method by the use of common-sense observation. No school has an exclusive claim on ordinary observation to supplement the more technical procedure; but it is of the distinctive features that I am speaking.

The second stage is represented by the application of the general facts and laws of psychology to the procedure of teaching and the conduct of the school. It is the application of psychology to education. It is scientific in the sense that it makes use of the findings of the science of psychology. It is a form of applied science, but it is deductive rather than inductive. One of the first, and perhaps on the whole most successful of the books which represent this stage, is James's *Talks to Teachers*. Even with the advance to a new type of educational psychology it would be false to deny the usefulness of this book, or even of its less distinguished successors. There is undoubtedly a place for the study and presentation of the educational

implication of current theories and points of view in psychology. Nevertheless, books of this type do not represent the distinctive and the most productive attack on the problems of educational psychology. They are survivals from a past age.

The third stage, in which we now find ourselves, is characterized by a direct attack upon those educational problems which are of a psychological nature. The leaders who ushered in this stage and the types of investigations in which they have engaged are too well known to require more than brief mention. One of the pioneers whose methods and conclusions have fallen into some disrepute but who nevertheless made important contributions to the science of educational psychology was G. Stanley Hall. Hall had a point of view which combined those of Rousseau and of Herbert Spencer, but he did not content himself with working out the implications of this point of view. His training under Wundt caused him to undertake to gather empirical evidence upon which he might base his conclusions. The next important attack was the study of the psychology of the school subjects in the laboratory, which was begun by Judd, Huey, and Dearborn, and which has continued productively to the present. Thorndike, following Bryan and Harter, began a general attack on the problem of learning by a study of learning in animals, and later, along with Courtis, Ayres, and others, developed the standardized measurement of educational products. Binet and Spearman, following the preliminary studies of Cattell, developed the procedure and theory of the measurement of mental abilities. From these beginnings has grown, within the memory of many of us, a distinct science of educational psychology with its own problems and its own methods of empirical research.

How does the development of educational sociology compare with this, and in what stage does this companion discipline now find itself? On this question I cannot pre-

tend to speak from intimate knowledge of the field, but it appears that we may discern the same three methods of dealing with the problems of educational sociology as have been described in educational psychology. Whether sociology has progressed as far towards the third and ultimate stage as has psychology is a question which may perhaps be left open for the present.

It is beyond question that the treatment of problems in educational sociology has in the past and still does often assume the form of philosophical discussion. The problems are attacked by starting with an assumed general principle and then applying this principle in a deductive manner to the various detailed, practical issues which arise. One example of such a principle which has been assumed in a priori manner and has been applied in a great variety of ways is the principle of democracy. To call a school or a procedure democratic is instantly to give it the stamp of approval. To designate it as undemocratic, on the other hand, is to brand it irrevocably, in the minds of many, as wholly and irretrievably bad. Thus many educators have passed judgment on the practice of homogeneous grouping, not by examining it in detail and studying the effects of its working empirically, but rather by asking themselves whether it appears to square with the abstract notion of democracy which they have set up in their minds, derived perhaps from the conception of history which they acquired in the elementary grades; and then when it does not fit this notion condemning it out of hand. Whether homogeneous grouping is or is not desirable is beside the point. The point is that this attempt to settle the question by appeal to an antecedent abstract principle rather than by empirical study can never inform us whether it is good or bad.

The devious ways in which the adoption of such an antecedent principle as that of democracy influences our judgments and sometimes leads to ludicrous inconsistencies in

policy would make an interesting study in itself. These inconsistencies are the natural result of starting from an assumed principle instead of deriving our generalizations from observed facts and constantly adjusting it to the facts as they are revealed by patient and systematic study. It seems evident that the thinking of many persons about the educational situation in Russia exhibits examples of such inconsistencies. If we may judge from the reports which reach us at this distance, the Russian Government is adopting certain features of American educational practice and theory, and this has led some Americans of the Progressive wing to feel and to express approval of the whole Russian experiment in governmental and social organization. This approval may or may not be justified. If we are empirical-minded we may await the issue with interest. The point is that the Soviet government, far from being a democracy, is an iron-handed oligarchy of the most ruthless sort; and when anything approaching the control of public opinion, which, by all accounts, is practised in Russia, is attempted in the United States, the radical wing is the first to protest. Again, the correctness of these judgments is not the question at issue. Both the approval of certain practices in Russia and the condemnation of the same practices in this country may be justified by the circumstances; but both practices cannot be derived from and justified by the principle of democracy. Some other more empirical basis of judgment must be found.

This deductive and philosophical method of thinking on the social problems of education is so widespread and so insidious that two or three more trivial yet revealing illustrations may be added. Our great national leader during the World War won general recognition as an idealistic statesman. But his efforts to work out the principle of democracy both in university administration and in national and international politics are now clearly recognized



as belonging to the old school of philosophical speculation rather than to the modern scientific study of political problems. An incident which is related of him brings out the inconsistency in which those who practise this method often become involved. It is reported that President Wilson, after urging the board of trustees of Princeton University to adopt certain changes in organization, said: "Gentlemen, how can I make Princeton democratic if you do not give me complete authority to carry out my policy?"

A fine example may be drawn from the field of our more immediate interest. The quandary into which a person who thinks more in terms of antecedent principles than of empirical generalization sometimes finds himself is well brought out in the comments of a practice teacher in a university laboratory school. This school is progressive in the sense that it changes its methods as rapidly as experiment indicates that they should be changed, but it does not emblazon on its banner the modern catchwords or slogans. This practice teacher came to the director of the kindergarten and expressed her difficulty in some such words as these: "I cannot get this school. It violates my most cherished principles. A curriculum is laid out for the children and to a large degree they are told what to do. According to my principles they ought not to be happy. And yet, so far as I can see, they are as happy as can be. I don't understand it." Principles of this sort are not effective guides to conduct. They are an expensive luxury; too expensive a luxury for a people which values results and which genuinely believes in the pragmatic philosophy.

Are any examples to be found of types of educational sociology which advance towards the empirical mode of procedure? A good deal of the current literature in the field seems to belong to the second stage described above, the application of generalizations arrived at in the general science of sociology to the particular problems of education. This procedure is similar to the first in that it starts



with generalizations instead of detailed situations; but it differs in that these generalizations are themselves derived from the empirical observations which are carried on in the general science.

An example of this form of treatment is found in the use of concepts of the various kinds of social groups. Sociology has distinguished, first, the primary groups, the family, the play group, and the community. Each of these groups has certain characteristics and by virtue of these characteristics is fitted to carry on certain types of education, formal or informal. The discussion of these forms of education may be carried on at the level of description, or the attempt may be made to show that some types of education are appropriate to the inherent character of some groups and others to other groups. Broader and more specialized than the primary groups are the intermediate groups, labor unions, farmers' organizations, professional associations, clubs, the church, etc. Again, the educational activities which are actually carried on by such organizations may be described, and an attempt may be made to define the types of education which they are by nature fitted to carry on. Finally we come to the State, the most inclusive group which has thus far assumed control of education. The nature of the responsibility of the State for education and the relation of the function of the State to that of the other social groups may be derived in part from a consideration of the concept of the State which has grown up and gradually become defined.

If the analogy with educational psychology may be continued, this procedure constitutes an advance beyond the philosophical method, but must still be regarded as representing a transitional stage. A step towards the more directly empirical procedure of the third stage is to be found in the treatment of the relation of the State to education. We may approach this question by starting with the concept of the State, or we may approach it by exam-

ining in detail the actual operations of the State. This we do when we study the legal aspect of the situation by examining the constitutions of the various States and of the United States, by compiling the legal enactments and the judicial decisions. These show the practices in actual operation. By comparing these practices it is possible to derive principles, not always uniform or consistent, but sufficiently general to serve as a means of unifying the practices which are followed in particular instances. This, then, is one example of the approach to the problems of educational sociology by the third or the empirical method.

A sufficient number of other studies have been made to indicate the great possibility which lies in the pursuit of the subject by the empirical method. All those empirical studies dealing with the origin and development of social institutions which are involved in education and with their present description, nature, and explanation are within its scope. These institutions may be of an abstract or of a concrete sort. Thus we speak of the institution of language, of number, or of art on the one hand, or of the institutions of the State and of the school, on the other hand. Within education itself are many specialized institutions, the kindergarten, the high school, the college, etc. An example of the empirical study of educational institutions is Counts's *The Social Composition of Boards of Education*. Studies of the requirements of occupations and of the usages of people in general furnish educators with information which is to be taken into account in adjusting education to the needs of the society which created it. All these examples are too familiar to require more than passing mention. They indicate that there is a fruitful field for sociological studies of the empirical type.

Our conclusion thus far amounts to this: Educational psychology and educational sociology have had a similar history in that each has passed or is passing through the three stages of philosophical speculation, the application

of more general scientific generalizations to the special problems of education, and the direct scientific attack on the educational problems themselves. The distinction between them, of course, is that sociology deals with institutions and organized products of human development, while psychology deals with the behavior and mental processes of the individual. But if the identification of the method of the two sciences is complete, as is here maintained, a distinction which is commonly drawn between psychology and sociology must be given up. It is often said that sociology deals with ends and therefore sets values, whereas psychology can, by its very nature, deal only with the means to the accomplishment of these ends.

Let us examine the grounds on which this distinction might conceivably rest. First, it might rest on the fact that sociology deals with the group while psychology deals with the individual. Group values, then, would be the sole arbiters of the educational procedure, while individual values would be negligible. Much as one might emphasize group values as contrasted with values to the individual, they could hardly be rated as the sole values to be considered. The distinction, then, must rest on some other ground.

The second possible ground is the assumption that values depend on a philosophical sanction and cannot be established on scientific grounds. Many would maintain this. If this is true it follows either that sociology is not a science or that it, like psychology, is incapable of setting values. But the argument of this paper is that sociology is in the way of becoming a science. This puts it on the same footing as psychology and both must stand or fall together. Either both of them can evaluate ends as well as devise means, or neither can do so.

I believe that both sciences can set ends in a real and practical sense—in the only sense, in fact, in which ends can be set up in systematic fashion as determinants of gen-

eral educational procedure. The individual, of course, must be allowed a certain range within which he is free to choose his objectives according to his own personal preferences. But this individual evaluation is not to be confused with the general evaluation which is to be set up as an institutional policy.

There is not time to attempt to justify in any detail the position that the scientific method is capable of yielding norms for the determination of general institutional policy. A brief suggestion or two may be made. Science is quite capable of distinguishing between organisms which function satisfactorily and those which do not function satisfactorily. Medicine makes this distinction, whether it treats the body or the mind. If it could not it would have no norm by which to judge the success of its efforts. Similarly education can set up norms which are scientific in character. Healthy functioning of body and mind, efficient performance of the tasks which confront the individual, a reasonable degree of adjustment to the physical and mental environment, and an evident sense of satisfaction and well-being, together with vigorous and well-controlled activity, are signs which all would accept as indications that the treatment accorded the individual is suited to his needs and his capacities. So far as the individual is concerned, then, norms by which to evaluate education on a scientific level are not far to seek. Doubtless the sociologist can set up similar norms for the evaluation of the effect of education on society.

Granting that neither educational psychology nor educational sociology has yet realized a very large share of the possible achievement which has been sketched, there is nothing inherently impossible in such realization, and examples are at hand in both sciences to warrant the expectation that both will make steady progress towards the goal of basing education on the scientific determination of both means and ends.

## A CHILD WHO FEARED TEACHERS<sup>1</sup>

WILLIAM CLARK TROW

To see ourselves as others see us may be a gift wisely withheld by the beneficent powers that be. Or it may be that the social interaction between pupil and teacher is not often so dramatic as this one, portrayed as it is by one shy, undramatic pupil. That she was unwisely treated is evident, though the reader's sympathy may be extended as much to the teachers she so graphically delineates, who were too busy to help her to adjust, as to the sensitive girl who was passed on from one to another, fearing them and hating school. At least the study will give the disciplinarians something to ponder, and will suggest an answer to the question so often heard: Why do children lose that eager enthusiasm and curiosity with which they come to school?

The method used in this study is that of recollection and is therefore subject to its weaknesses. But the coincidence of pupil and teacher reports (when the latter are available) speaks well for their validity though the interpretations differ, as one might suppose. Further value is derived from the genetic development shown over a period of years. Some passages are quoted directly, others abbreviated from the long-running account which was taken down almost word for word by Miss Graham, who knows Grace and most of her teachers personally. The teacher reports were received in reply to a letter asking for such details about the girl's mental ability, temperament, and adjustment to the group as they were able to remember.

Grace was an only child of parents well up in middle life, and was brought up without the companionship of other children until she was of school age. The family then moved to a near-by city to take advantage of the companionships and instructional opportunities offered by a

<sup>1</sup> Data obtained by Alice M. Graham, junior-college teacher.

well-organized school system. She looked forward to this new life with zest; and when the time arrived, as she says, "I rushed from home early that first morning so as not to miss any of the joys of school. Of course, school was the place where everybody had a good time both working and playing. And mother had taught me that teachers were very pleasant and kind to all the children. So this was my attitude the first day."

*First Grade.* The first knock came after a week when the teacher told her she was "like the three ducks" in the picture, tagging behind the rest of the barnyard creatures. "It never occurred to me that I should hurry, for all I could think of was that Miss A had hurt me. The *why* didn't seem to matter at all. It wasn't because I wanted to displease, but because I misunderstood the situation." She was scolded for her poor reading, and notes about it were sent home which her mother never received for she buried them in the snow, a device which the teacher at last suspected and thereafter dispatched them by neighbors' children. This resulted in "considerable nagging . . . but there was no result so far as I was concerned." Miss A's reluctance to make a star pattern for a dress trimming, causing Grace to resolve never to ask her to do anything again, completed the rather meager list of grievances for the first year. "Yet I still liked her very much. By this time I had begun to retire within myself because I had been squelched so much in my childish enthusiasms, and was now staying in the background so far as the teacher was concerned though there were always plenty of children to play with."

Miss A's report: Average mental ability; not her work that made her different but her social side; shy and nervous, friendly and anxious to please. I remember well her smile. Unaccustomed to working or playing with other children. Home life and previous residence responsible, but she tried to take her place among the others. Her year here helped



her in adjusting. Seemed to enjoy school. . . . I do not recall any instances of punishment.

*Second Grade.* Here Grace's improvement in reading made her decide to go back to Miss A to show her that she really could read. Miss A was busy and another teacher standing near had time to exclaim, "Why! Is Grace back in your room again?" This misunderstanding together with Miss A's lack of enthusiasm over her improvement in reading resulted in her going back to her room, "fighting the tears and feeling extremely unhappy. Teachers just weren't like mothers and fathers. . . . The second-grade teacher was young and snippy, one of those who never recognized children on the street. This is the grade where they began cracking me on the fingers with a ruler. And from then on I got it; but I wouldn't cry, and there was no effect so far as minding was concerned. . . . I was certainly glad when school closed that year."

*Third Grade.* "Miss B had very poor health and consequently was annoyed by every one. I recall that she always yelled at us instead of speaking in an ordinary tone. Once when I didn't have a pencil, she yelled out, 'Go home and get one.' I cried every step of the way home and was frightened almost to death to go back. All the work I did was in spelling, and that was because mother drilled me and hired me until I got E's right along in that subject." She escaped repeating this grade only by the intervention of her mother, who promised to drill her on arithmetic during the summer, which she did.

*Fourth Grade.* "There was not much to look forward to in school and much less when I went into this room and saw the teacher. All I could think of was an old witch. She wore her hair in a knot on top of her head, with locks hanging down all around, and her clothes looked as if they came out of the attic. . . . She was the worst one yet in disciplining, since she would have you yanked out of your seat before you realized it; this is the year I spent



most of my time out in the hall or else sitting on the floor. I didn't want to do anything for her; the main idea was to get through. I didn't care for marks as long as I crawled through, which was just what I did."

Teacher's report: Grace was *very* poor in her work that year, if I remember rightly—a failure. She was very reticent, made very little response to either kindness or punishment. She was shy of me as she had no use for school work, which was quite beyond her mental grasp that year. She was at the adolescent period and was indifferent to anything pertaining to school life.

*Fifth Grade.* Here is an oasis in the desert. "Miss C didn't believe in punishing, and her room was so quiet and restful that I felt like really working. . . . At the end of the year I cried because I had to go to another teacher."

*Sixth Grade.* "This was another of the yelling teachers. She used to get out of patience with me at the board—I suppose I was aggravating—and yell out: 'I don't know what is going to happen to you next year!' Everything about the year was unpleasant and I was glad to be out of there."

*Seventh Grade.* "Here I found one of those large-built, domineering types of teachers. She was very exacting and never forgot the signals: 'Turn, stand, pass.' This year I failed in language and arithmetic so had to remain in the same grade the following year."

Teacher's report: Hard for her to learn. Couldn't seem to concentrate. Nervous temperament. Associated with the better class of children. She was always very friendly with me, more sociable than the average girl. . . . I was surprised at Grace's attending junior college, but then I find that some of my poorer pupils have retained more than the brighter and have surprised me by accomplishing more than I ever dreamed they would.

*Eighth Grade.* "Again I was unfavorably impressed by a large, mannish-appearing woman, Miss D. Just to look at

her was enough to scare any one, and to hear her deep, gruff voice would just about paralyze a boy or girl of this age." A graduation present of a wrist watch Grace hid for a time from Miss D for fear of her sarcastic remarks, but was pleasantly surprised to hear her say it was nice, when she saw it; but this didn't alter her fearful attitude.

Her mother writes: At this time Grace gave the impression that if she could sneak into school and out again without the teacher's seeing her, she would be all right. Miss D, whom Grace disliked so much, told me that Grace had a lot of doll things in her desk, and she had a mind to take her out in the hall, turn up her clothes and spank her—which she did not do, fortunately, for it would have made the child that much worse.

The junior high school was partially departmentalized, and here two teachers were found who were "quite a relief" from those she had had. She seemed to step out of her part when she asked the civics teacher if she could be one of the school debaters, "though I could scarcely stand up while asking, I was so afraid of a refusal." When her request was reluctantly granted, she became absorbed in making her mark as a debater and was chosen captain of the team. "For almost the first time I had something to really work for and felt like putting forth my best effort." Her team won, and "school began to be a little more worth while, at least it was for a few weeks."

Civics teacher's report: Mental ability—mediocre; retiring in a crowd, but one who unfolded and could lead a small group. She was one who fell in line, so no need for punishment.

*Senior High School.* Here Grace looked forward hopefully for a change but as usual was disappointed. The geometry teacher she liked in spite of his "silly" and sometimes rather coarse remarks—and she failed the course. The sewing teacher, who was generally disliked, was kind to her because "she thought a great deal of a friend of

mine who had done her many kindnesses." Another teacher whom she liked had to leave in the middle of the term because of illness, and her place was taken by a man "who was a sissy and the pupils walked all over him, so no work was accomplished in that class. The librarian had said some very nice things about me to others, which made me feel like doing nice things to please her, so I was always attending to my own business in the library. Miss E, in botany, however, was very sarcastic and snippy. She wouldn't speak to me on the street, or if she did it was with such a high and mighty air that I would rather she wouldn't notice me at all. I was certainly afraid of her and failed in the course. . . . My music teacher was very likable, but I did not make a very good showing as I had no musical ability, or so I was told."

Music teacher's report: Possibly average ability, and superficial at that. Dependable and loyal. Never a leader among the girls, but a very fine girl so far as moral standards are concerned. Appears quite unsophisticated. Colorless and uninteresting. I have been very disgusted with her senseless questions. She was unable to make the glee club. Has no special ability in music. She never seemed to have appeal for boys. I never saw her getting any attention from them until she was in college.

"On commencement night I received my diploma just as the others did, but I fancy with quite a different feeling, for I had just completed a hated job and it had not been done well either, which only made me feel more than ever that I was through with school and never wanted to see the inside of a school building again. In fact I hated to admit it even to myself, but I thought I just wasn't intelligent enough to do college work. Of course I never told others what I thought; but if they asked me about going on, I always said that my credits weren't right for college."

The following two years spent in part in travel with her parents showed her among other things that she was not

equipped to earn her living. "In the meantime my mother had been talking about my becoming a teacher; in fact, she had got to the point of nagging about it." However, her visits to historical places made her realize how little she had derived from the study of history and other subjects in school. And "one of the boys who had been a very good friend in high school and had gone on to junior college" dropped in and talked to her about psychology, about which she knew nothing beyond what she had read in an article in the Sunday paper. The "nagging" of her mother about going into teaching and her desire to keep up with the boy friend whom she thought she might want to marry some day, and who would want her to "hold up her end of the conversation," together with the closing of a temporary office job she had been holding induced her to inquire about going to college.

*Junior College.* Though she entered two weeks late, and though one of her teachers was Miss E, whom she had despised in high school, now promoted to a college job, she determined to make good and show those teachers of the past that she could do something worth while, and show herself that she had at least average intelligence. The new principal of the high school whom she went to see about her credits exclaimed when he saw them: "A whole string of D's, and deficiencies in science and language!" When she said she was ashamed of her record, he replied, "You need to be," and when she told him she was doing well in college, he further cheered her by saying, "Well, it will help. You'll need all the assistance you can get." So this was another of the officials that she would go out of her way to avoid.

She received cordial help and encouragement from the history teacher and from Miss F, the English teacher. The latter had written on a "D" paper, "Cheer up, you'll do better next time." "It was all I could do to keep back the tears, not because of the 'D' as much as the unexpected

kind words. She often asked how I was getting along, and it did seem good to know that a teacher was interested in whether I lived or died. It was almost like living in heaven after my past experience."

The wind soon veered, however, for Grace planned to finish her two years' work in a year and a half by going to summer school and to night school. "Miss F showed plainly her disapproval. In fact, one of my fellow students told me that there was a teacher up there that was after my scalp because I was trying to get through in too much of a hurry." A "D" in teacher's grammar was followed by a consultation, in the course of which Miss F lectured her, saying that she shouldn't be a teacher because she was not an "A" student, and that if she were worth only a D at the end of the course she wouldn't get it but would be failed. "But I said, 'Oh, you'll give me a "C" at the end of the term,' which she did. At the close of this interview I was downright angry, and had to go immediately to my adviser with my troubles, where I got the sort of advice that I needed, and help in forgetting the unpleasant things said to me, though I had to fight with myself to go back to her class and act as I had before towards her." Later, in a group, Miss F complimented her for working so hard. "I said it was hard at times but that I had come through O.K. And then she said, 'Yes, by the—' stopped short and then laughed and didn't finish it. But I could have finished what she was about to say, and so could every one else. That completely finished her with me. I could never feel the same again."

English teacher's statement (Miss F): Slow in comprehension and illogical in the handling of abstract thought. . . . Her attempt at application of her apparent knowledge resulted in illogical and irrational work. She excelled in work of the arts and crafts where imagination and aesthetic tastes were combined with skill of hand. Because of her difficulties in the world of the abstract, I con-

sidered it very unwise for her to crowd her schedule. . . .  
Cheery and optimistic, kindly and forgiving in spirit.  
Unusually appreciative of all that was done for her. . . .  
A consciousness of her lack of mental ability increased by nervousness from an overtaking of her strength caused her meager stock of self-confidence to be shattered at the first word of criticism. However, she made a special plea for criticism in her eagerness to learn.

"The dean was always very kind to me both in class and outside, though I received only a 'C' in teacher's arithmetic. But he always made me feel as if he were glad I was there."

The dean's statement: She seemed to be suffering from an inferiority complex. When I convinced her that she should enter junior college she appeared to be most happy that we wanted her in spite of her lack of success in high school. She made the statement that she was going to do her very best. . . . Soon she came to feel that she belonged and entered with enthusiasm into extracurricular activities. . . . She was sensitive to criticism but always showed the proper attitude and tried to follow instructions. Her appreciation of any kindness or unusual attention was marked.

"Both physiology and elementary psychology were taught by that terrible high-school teacher, Miss E, whom I had been so afraid of. I was frightened almost to death the first day I approached the room. She had seen me in the library shortly before and had looked at me very coolly, or so I imagined, just as if she were saying, 'Well, what are you doing up here?' . . . There was more or less of a barrier between us in class. . . . She told me that my work was good and that I had improved unbelievably since I was in high school. And I certainly changed my opinion of her, for she was very fine to me everywhere, and I enjoyed working with her in the League when she was the adviser."



Miss E's report: In high school I thought Grace really subnormal or bordering on that. Shy almost like a frightened animal; always sweet and well behaved. But no response to questions in class. When she came to me in college, I thought, how can she ever make the grade? Of course she wasn't brilliant but so much improved that I could scarcely believe it was the same girl. I told her so one day. She then told me she never studied a bit in high school. She is what I call of average mentality, sensitive nature, can be wounded easily but responds to kindness very quickly. She always coöperated splendidly in the classroom and the League with me.

"The art instructor was a very emotional, high-strung person, but I liked her, nevertheless. She used to rave about the board and purchasing agent in connection with getting supplies, and told us all her troubles in school work. People were all unstrung most of the time in her class. But I really owe her a great deal as I had taken art all through the grades and never knew that I had any ability at all until Miss G began to encourage me."

Art teacher's statement: Grace was always industrious, ambitious, and had some little originality. Her taste was limited owing perhaps to her life conditions. At times I recall that she did not respond to criticism as well as she might, hence hindering her progress in art development. This would have been entirely overcome had I had her in class another semester. She was a most interesting student although somewhat independent at times.

"Once I volunteered to teach a model lesson to the education class; and when I got through Mrs. H asked me if I had ever taught before. When I told her I hadn't, she said, 'Well, you did very well to deceive me into thinking you had had experience.' This certainly made me feel like working harder than ever. Very soon I was asked to teach a class in art over at the training room just to help out and



get the benefit of the experience. This was uphill business, but I finally got on to it and did satisfactory work. . . . Many times I was angry at Mrs. H over little criticisms, but I just couldn't stay angry with her, for I knew that we all got our criticisms straight from the shoulder, and then you didn't hear any more about that mistake. There was no such thing as being nagged at. But for a long time I felt as if I had to handle Mrs. H with gloves on. . . . There still cropped out this same old fear every once in a while."

Mrs. H's statement: Average mental ability, capable of greater development than she has had yet. Nervous and hysterical. Extremely sensitive nature. Has to be handled very carefully, but will attempt anything if you show her the proper sympathy and understanding. Enjoyed working on committees and told me it was the first time in school she had had a chance to take her part in social activities, that is, as a leader. Assumed responsibility well. Perhaps she was too much given to worrying about everything, but I think this was due to an inferiority complex which had been built up when she was a child. . . . I had to be very careful in handling her since I knew how easily she was hurt; but she always seemed to take my criticisms kindly and put my suggestions into operation immediately.

*Normal College.* "Here I found the same conditions as I had in the grades and high school. Again I experienced the same old fear of teachers; and not knowing one building from another nor any one on the campus, I was perfectly miserable the first few days. . . . The day of enrollment was one of the worst experiences I've ever had, and it seemed impossible to get any help from any one. This was the day I met my critic teacher, just when I was tired and hysterical. . . . She was so kind and motherly that I went away feeling very much better. I thought I had found a wonderful friend in her.

"For a week I felt that way towards her, and then she began to pick on me. She said I had a very marked superiority complex and was conceited to the nth degree, and that they didn't want people like me in the world; that I was the complaining, nagging sort that would wear my husband (if I ever got one) to a frazzle, and that if she hadn't built up a barrier between us, I would have worn her out. She thought I looked so frail that if she were a superintendent she wouldn't hire me, for I would probably be dead within six months. I disliked her so that I would go any distance to avoid meeting her. She told us as a group we were the worst she had ever had. About the last thing she said to me was that she didn't want me to quote her to any one."

From the critic teacher's report to the appointment office: Good-looking, has style and taste in dress, extremely sensitive, voice has a nasal, fretful quality, conscientious. Teaching ability: dependent, needs direction, lacks force, works hard, overattention to details, overlooks essentials in drill and review work. This is Grace's first term in college. An overloaded program and limited endurance has made her extremely nervous.

"One or two of the teachers have been nice to me but there has not been shown any personal interest in any of us ordinary students, and the less time I have to spend there the better I shall like it. I wish that I might overcome this fear of teachers so that I could enjoy my work wherever I happen to attend school."

It is hardly necessary to analyze this story of a sensitive, "only" child with her average endowment in her quest for adjustment. The school could not give it, though the college for which she was hardly fitted almost did. Grace is now teaching in an ungraded, one-room country school, beloved by her pupils and their parents, perhaps because she knows how to give that encouragement and sympathy of which she demanded so much.

HOW MUCH OF THE METRIC SYSTEM?—  
AN ATTEMPT AT APPLYING EDUCATIONAL  
SOCIOLOGY

STEPHEN G. RICH

Certain States and cities require that the metric system of weights and measures be taught, usually in the eighth grade. Other States, again, make no mention of any metric material as part of the course of study. When the teacher and the textbook writer come to carry into practice the direction to teach "something" or "a reading knowledge" of the metric system, the efforts put forth result in a hasty but comprehensive survey of the whole range of metric measurement, with all the prefixes, all the multiples, and all the subdivisions mentioned. The net result of metric instruction appears to be the production of a state of mind in the pupil in which dekameter and deciliter, 39.37 and 2.1, grams and ars, kilograms and kilometers, are mingled in a haze of vague reminiscence, with no positive ability to use anything metric. To judge from the attitude of those who come into high-school physics and chemistry with this background of vague metric half-knowledge, the net effect of the instruction has been to create for the pupils an impression that the metric system is a hopeless jumble, of no interest or use to any live American.

There is need for an extensive and objective study of "what, how, why, and when" in the teaching of the metric system. This article aims only to set forth the necessary sociological approach that is essential for the intelligent prosecution of such an investigation. If any immediate proposals for improvement upon present instruction should incidentally be developed, they are to be taken as purely tentative and suited to the present situation only.

*1. How much do we use metric weights and measures?*

Probably the meter itself is the most widely known metric unit in America today. This is because radio wavelengths are always stated in meters. No other metric unit is anywhere nearly so often spoken of; but doubtless the meter is not thought of as any actual distance by the vast majority of those speaking of it in radio work. Less familiar, but known to some of us through international athletic contests, is the kilometer. One hundred meters, 200 meters, and 500 meters are also known from international athletic contests.

In scientific work and in the teaching of the sciences, certain metric units are extensively used. These are the millimeter, the centimeter, the gram, the kilogram, the cubic centimeter, and the liter. A few botanists use the decimeter; the milligram is used in analytical chemistry not by name but as .001 gram. I have not been able to find any use of any other metric units; it will be noted that units of area are entirely absent from those in actual use.

Units derived from metric ones are in common use. We are nearly all familiar with the strictly metric kilowatt hour by which we pay for our electricity. The volt, ampere, microfarad, and ohm are, thanks to radio, increasingly familiar; and of course all electricians are familiar with them. The watt, also purely metric in derivation, is familiar but to most people carries a meaning in terms of illuminating power of electric lamps rather than its basal significance.

The metric units that are part of our environment are therefore fairly numerous but they are sharply delimited into two groups. The first, including the meter, the kilometer, and the electrical units in part, are part of our general social life. The rest, including the millimeter, centimeter, liter, cubic centimeter, gram, and kilogram, are portions of the technical equipment of the workers in special

fields. It is noteworthy that no units with deka- or deci- or hecto- as prefixes find place in our everyday use.

The captious reader will probably insist that we use the gram and cubic centimeter in pharmaceutical work. It is true that chemicals and preparations have the metric quantities marked on their containers; but there is no evidence that these are actually used in place of the old-system quantities for which they are given as equivalents.

*2. Is the metric system increasing in use?*

Outside the United States the metric system is gaining in use, and that more widely than previous to the World War. Japan is a recent recruit to the countries substituting metric for local units. The English-speaking countries, from South Africa to Canada, remain as the one solid block of nonmetric peoples. We, as a nation, appear to stay with this block to which we belong; we use metric units in scientific work and in new technologies, as do the others who speak the same language. Of some two dozen competent and interested observers whom I have questioned, not one was willing to state definitely that metric units had gained ground in the United States since the end of the World War. Our largest customers in export trade—also among the countries from which we import most—are nonmetric but use the same measures as do we: Canada and Great Britain. This must be qualified by saying that our gallon is different from that in use in all the other English-speaking lands.

The familiarity with metric units that was acquired by members of the A.E.F. in France and by munition workers here has gradually vanished. We are, therefore, faced with a smaller degree of social applicability of metric material now in America than was the case ten years ago.

3. *What causes are preventing American extension of the use of metric units?*

In this section, opinions alone can be recorded. Those listed and explained are the ones which several thoughtful observers have independently given.

1. Foremost among the delaying causes is the fact that metric units have been introduced into the few particular phases of social life in which the old-style systems caused the greatest nuisance. This refers to scientific work of all sorts. The very persons who would become able and strenuous advocates of metric measures are, after the slight trouble of learning them, freed from the occasion to advocate them. In the ordinary relations of life we get along comfortably enough with inches, feet, yards, and miles, leaving rods to surveyors and furlongs to horse jockeys. Only goldsmiths think of pounds troy, and only in British literature do we meet the weight "the stone." The gill is left to apothecaries, and the hogshead appears to have dropped into a forgotten grave. We get along comfortably enough with avoirdupois pounds and ounces, with pints, quarts, gallons, and barrels.

2. Closely allied to this is the fact that the irregularities of the old systems are not inconvenient enough to give metric measures enough of an advantage to overcome our liking for the habitual. The decimalization of our money has been a sufficient gain to do away with any urgent call for any further gains.

3. The vagaries of the metric advocates, especially McAdie of Blue Hill, Massachusetts, have gone far towards making the educated public resistant to the introduction of the metric system. By "vagaries" I refer to continuous publicity given to supposedly difficult and puzzling computations in old-style measures, which would be quick and easy in metric units. This involves always some such action as using apothecaries' weights, which are



taught only to pharmacists in schools of pharmacy; or selecting problems that have no practical use or that are of interest to a mathematician only. A further vagary, still more widespread, is to insist upon the logical completeness of the metric scheme. This is particularly calculated to alienate the ordinary man: he does not see the difference, which is theoretical only, between the milliliter (a measure of volume) and the cubic centimeter (a measure of capacity).

4. Downright neglect of good pedagogy in the treatment of metric measures in arithmetic texts. Whether one take a text of 1904<sup>1</sup>, one of 1926<sup>2</sup>, or one of 1928<sup>3</sup>, the treatment is essentially the same, and is wholly unpedagogical. Any other texts than those chosen here would show exactly the same errors; for, barring the choice of problems, the treatment in all texts is so closely akin as to be suspected of being copied from one antique source. A historical approach teaches the pupil that the metric system is a foreign thing to his own life; complete tables make each series of units, whether length, area, weight, or volume, seem excessively complicated; usually but not always a table of prefixes introduces the whole series of tables. The 1928 text mentioned must be commended for abbreviating the tables in some parts, but must be criticized adversely for omitting all metric weights. The treatment is always strictly deductive in all texts.

*4. Should the schools work to aid in the introduction of the metric system?*

The advocates of the metric system unquestionably will say that this is part of the duty of the schools. This attitude is, of course, only that of the propagandist for any particular "cause": The same claim is made by the advo-

<sup>1</sup> The Southworth-Stone Arithmetic. G. A. Southworth and J. C. Stone. 1904.

<sup>2</sup> Arithmetical Essentials, Maximum Course. J. A. Drushel, M. E. Noonan and J. W. Withers. 1926.

<sup>3</sup> The Triangle Arithmetics. L. J. Brueckner, C. J. Anderson, G. O. Banting and E. L. Merton, 1928.



cates of total abstinence from alcoholic drinks, of the abolition of tobacco, of reformed spelling, of flag worship, etc. As with the advocates of other additions to the duties of the schools, the metric partisans have not yet put forth a convincing argument.

A step towards a decision may be taken by the setting up of criteria by which to judge of the worth of any item or group of items as content of the curriculum. From the sociological point of view, education is a social activity which exists in order to accomplish definite objectives. Perhaps the two best known statements of these objectives are the Seven Cardinal Aims set forth by the National Education Association committee in 1916, and Bobbitt's ten objectives formulated some years later. In terms of these only a limited amount of metric material may be justified in the curriculum. Such metric items as will aid in social communication or that may be regarded as parts of "fundamental processes" of mental action, will be allowable. The items listed in section 1 of this article as being in current use in this country comprise all of these, for the need of social communication with other countries—metric users—is limited to very few people. In various vocations, other metric units will be taught as part of the vocational equipment. No other categories of educational purpose within these two lists give any occasions for metric material.

If, however, we follow various educational thinkers in considering that preparation of the pupil to be a citizen of a dynamic, changing, or advancing social order is a part of the legitimate work of the school, we may be able to find occasion for teaching the metric units somewhat more thoroughly. It can, the writer is convinced, be shown that in our times those social units that are showing the greatest advances in other respects are sooner or later, quickly or slowly, adopting the metric system. The English-speaking countries thus far have been exceptions. It

may be shown, however, beyond all reasonable doubt, that this is due to two facts: first, no specific occasion for general introduction of the metric system has occurred in the English-speaking countries; change has taken place piecemeal, without such political changes as gave occasion for the introduction of metric measures in France, Germany, or Italy; second, the dropping of old units from actual use and in some cases the simplification of money alone (Canada, United States) has simplified the old system of weights and measures to a sufficient extent to make the inconveniences too small to worry any one.

Probably there is justification for teaching the metric system somewhat more effectively and more thoroughly than is now done in the criterion of "education for progress."

*5. Some social factors likely to be of use in teaching metric measures.*

The reader is referred to section 1 of this article for information relevant at this point.

Beyond this, there is the social fact that we are accustomed to centesimal money. Pupils in school who have trouble with one-place and three-place decimals are used to two-place decimals in our money and work without trouble in them. A treatment of the metric system that works on the 1 to 100 ratio rather than on repeated 1 to 10 ratios, can utilize this. Fortunately, some of the metric units in common use are related to the 1 to 100 ratio. The omission of the disused deci- and deka- units from instruction facilitates the use of this ratio. In length (centimeter and meter), in area (hectare and square kilometer), this holds true.

A consideration of the social fact that we use certain arbitrary abbreviations instead of the logical ones may aid in dispelling opposition to metric units. Although the official organization of metric advocates tells us to write

cm<sup>3</sup> (without a period after it), and the textbooks tell us to write cu. cm., chemists are generally agreed on writing cc—and on reading it “seesee.” The term “kilogram” is universally shortened in metric lands to “kilo,” and might with advantage be so taught. The abbreviation for it is all but universally given as K, not as Kg. Likewise, the gram is fairly generally abbreviated as gm., not as g. The use of the socially accepted shortenings and abbreviations should be of material aid in overcoming disinclination to learn metric units.

*6. A final word.*

This article has attempted to show that in the social order as it now exists and as it is now trending, there exist definite causes why some portions of the metric system should form portions of the school curriculum. An attempt has been made to show to what extent the teaching of the metric system needs to be changed, by curtailment of content and by use of socially accepted but not logical developments.

It is for our friends the psychologists to discover for us the stage in the pupil's progress through school at which the metric material may best be taught. It is for them to discover at what stage the child can learn metric material with least difficulty. It is for them to discover at what stage the child's interests will lead to readily learning the metric material.

It is for the practitioners of education, working with sociological and physiological facts, to recast the instruction in the metric system so that the present result, consisting of muddlement and dislike, shall cease to be produced.

## COMMERCIAL TEACHER-TRAINING CURRICULA

HERBERT A. TONNE

There are no doubt many factors responsible for the status of the commercial teacher in the teaching profession. Some of these are probably far too intangible to be accounted for with our present means of social diagnosis. These factors influence and counterinfluence each other in such an intricate way that it is impossible to measure their influence on the status of the teacher with any degree of certainty. For example, the attitude of the commercial teacher, himself, towards his work is no doubt consequential. But so many of the other factors, such as salary, teaching ability, tenure of office, and the like, influence the teacher's attitude and are influenced by it in turn, that its individual importance in determining the status of the commercial teacher cannot be isolated. Realizing this situation full well, and taking into account the fact that all elements which go towards making up the total situation (in this case the status of the commercial teacher in the teaching profession) are mutually interinfluential, we can for analytical purposes view one of these elements as a unit factor with justice towards the other factors, provided we are not trying to measure the degree of influence.

One factor of this type is the teacher-training curricula which commercial teachers take in preparation for their work. Its importance as an element in making up the status of the commercial teacher can hardly be isolated for measurement with our present instruments of social research. This does not, however, invalidate a study of curricula for the ways in which they will influence the teacher's status provided no exact conclusion about its relative importance is attempted. With this consideration fully in mind, the writer made a study of these curricula upon a

comparative basis, realizing that absolute judgment was not possible.

The curricula of all schools that offered commercial teacher-training curricula that could be found were compiled and classified according to the type of work given, the types of schools in which the work was offered, the number of years required by the curriculum, and the year in the curriculum in which the various types of work were required. No attempt was made to estimate the number of students passing through these curricula. The credit given for the various types of courses in the curricula was also studied in some detail. No attempt was made to make an original investigation of the conditions for entrance to curricula or of the certification given to graduates of these curricula.

The schools were divided into four general groups: private business schools, normal schools, teachers colleges, and universities. Where it was difficult to make a distinction between teachers colleges and normal schools the division was made on the basis of years of training required. Schools were classified as normal schools if their curricula were less than four years in length. Several schools which were classified as teachers colleges because they offered a four-year curriculum in commercial-teacher training also permitted their students to undertake the teaching of commercial subjects at the end of the second or third year. It was decided not to include the shorter curricula in the normal-school group also, because it would result in needless duplication and confusion. The number of schools used were as follows:

Business schools .....	21
Normal schools .....	19
Teachers colleges .....	28
Universities .....	29
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	97

It must be remembered that this includes only schools found, and probably some schools giving commercial teacher training were overlooked. It is also to be remembered that no doubt many teachers of commercial subjects receive their training in schools which make no provision for commercial-teacher training. These schools, of course, could not be included.

In arranging the grouping of courses in commercial teacher training, it was decided to divide the work done into five groups: general, commercial, technical, education, and commercial education. Courses in the general group are those which are required of all college students and are of broad cultural value rather than of specific value to the commerce or education student alone. The commercial group includes those that are required only for those students preparing for the field of business or business teaching. Technical courses, for the purpose of this study, are those courses most frequently given for their specific value as subject matter for commercial teachers and include such subjects as stenography, bookkeeping, and typewriting. Courses in education are divided into two groups: (1) those of a general nature required of all teachers, and (2) those intended only for prospective business teachers.

No attempt will be made to give the detailed data relating to each course found in the curricula. A summary of the data of the study in table form is given below.

SUMMARY OF COMMERCIAL TEACHER-TRAINING CURRICULA

Type of Course	Bus. Col.		Normal		Teach. Col.		Univer.		Total	
	No.	P.C.	No.	P.C.	No.	P.C.	No.	P.C.	No.	P.C.
General.....	37	10.2	58	24.6	140	26.2	135	28.1	370	22.9
Commerce....	102	28.2	42	17.8	158	29.5	139	29.0	441	27.3
Technical....	134	37.3	69	29.2	105	19.7	75	15.6	383	23.7
Education....	76	20.8	52	21.6	96	17.9	83	17.3	307	19.1
Com. Educ....	13	3.5	16	6.8	36	6.7	48	10.0	113	7.1
Total.....	362	100.0	237	100.0	535	100.0	480	100.0	1614	100.1



Read thus: Business colleges offer 37 courses of a general nature which is 10.2 per cent of the 362 courses of all types offered by business colleges. Normal schools offer 58 courses of a general nature which is 24.6 per cent of the 237 courses of all types offered in normal schools. In the final column it is found that 370 courses of a general nature are given in all types of schools which is 22.9 per cent of the 1614 courses of all types offered in all types of schools.

It will be noted in a comparison of the general courses that in all the curricula only one fifth of the time in terms of courses is devoted to this type of work. In a four-year curriculum this would mean that less than one year of study is given over to acquiring an acquaintance with human activities in their various manifestations in contemporary civilization, so that the student may discover how the totality of life is related to his proposed field of specialization. This is little enough time in which to get an understanding of the nature of our modern world. However, of the schools used in the present study, by no means all required this length of time. The requirements were as follows:

Four-year curricula .....	60
Three-year curricula .....	8
Two-year curricula .....	22
Six to eight months above a two-year normal curriculum	2
Indefinite above a three-year normal curriculum.....	1
Eighteen months .....	1
Indefinite .....	3
	<hr/>
	97

Moreover, eight of the four-year curricula make provision for completing the work in two years, and five for completing the work in three years. Of the three-year curricula one makes provision for completing the work in two years. This, of course, gives no suggestion of the number of prospective commercial teachers who take the various types of work. If, however, about a fifth of a four-year curricu-

lum devoted to subjects of a general nature is inadequate, a fifth of a shorter curriculum will be proportionately more inadequate. To the extent to which teachers are prepared in institutions which have the shorter curricula the indications would show that they receive very little opportunity for getting a broad perspective of the general nature of our cultural background. This condition is accentuated, it will be noticed, by the fact that the private business colleges which in general have the shortest curricula make by far the least provision for general work. If commercial teachers are prepared for their professions to any great extent by schools of this type it would be natural to expect them to be rather narrow in their viewpoint. While it is probably true that commercial teachers were generally prepared in the past by private schools, the indications seem to show that this condition is changing rapidly.

It would seem reasonable to ask that the curriculum in preparation for commercial teachers should make provision for a thorough understanding on the part of the student of the social setting of business and of the social structures in terms of which the business manager's work is conducted. This would mean that the student would acquire an understanding of the principles upon which modern business is conducted beyond that which is required in preparation for other fields of endeavor, such as medicine, for example. It will be noted by reference to the table that 27.3 per cent of the time of the curricula is given over to this type of work. The normal schools make a much poorer showing than other schools in this respect. A close study of curricula offered by normal schools would lead one to expect this condition. In many instances the commercial teacher-training curricula offered in normal schools are the curricula offered in preparation for the elementary-school teacher with a few courses in bookkeeping and in shorthand and typewriting substituted for regu-

lar content courses in elementary-school subjects. The number of students in the commercial teacher-training curricula are so few in these types of schools and the environment frequently so unsuited to a study of commerce that almost no facilities are or can be made available for the thorough study of commercial life. This situation, it will readily be agreed, is very unfortunate. The commercial teacher can hardly acquire a sympathetic comprehension of the purposes of commercial education under such depressing conditions. If any large number of commercial teachers receive their training in such curricula, whose objective is primarily preparation for a quite different field, the work of the business teacher will suffer decidedly.

As the table shows, the business colleges and to a lesser extent the normal schools give a large portion of their time to purely technical subjects; that is, subjects which would be of value to the teacher for classroom material only if he teaches these very subjects. English, for example, is applicable under all teaching conditions. Economics can be applied not only in all commercial subjects, but also in the various social sciences taught in the secondary school. Stenography, on the other hand, as an example of a typical technical subject has ordinarily no applications in the other subjects of the curriculum, such as history, or science, and the like. With a curriculum which is typically two years in length, the business college devotes over a third of its time, it will be noted, to work of a technical nature. Thus there is hardly more than a year left for all the other things the teacher should know. This makes it very difficult for him to teach subjects other than those in which he has specialized—that is, the technical subjects, bookkeeping, shorthand, and typewriting—when he goes into the field. In the large number of small secondary schools the teacher is frequently required to teach many subjects other than the group in which he has specialized. This puts the commercial teacher trained

in a purely technical manner under a decided handicap. It lowers his status as a "general" or all-round teacher. It probably also narrows his viewpoint and makes him look at the curriculum in terms of technicalities. Such bias is most unfortunate both for the general prestige of the commercial teacher and for the pupils under the control of such an instructor. It will be noticed, however, that the teachers colleges and universities which require four years of preparation for teaching also require a minimum of technical subject matter. They appear to require only sufficient knowledge of the technical subjects to ensure adequate teaching ability. Another fallacy is often made by those setting up such curricula. They make the assumption that all commercial work is limited to technical work or can be understood on this basis. There is almost as much variety in commercial life as there is in the whole of life, for there is a business basis to almost every one of our life activities. This would indicate the need for a far broader preparation than such technical work can give. It would appear to demand not merely a commercial curriculum but various commercial curricula. As Stephen G. Rich has pointed out in a recent article of *THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY*:<sup>1</sup>

For these groups we need not one curriculum, but several curricula. The requirements in the way of preprofessional knowledge and training are so different for these various professions that any common curriculum is necessarily wasteful of time for all. But, in particular, a grave error will be committed if we merely lump together all commercial pursuits with the title of "commerce." Between the aspirant for managerial or executive work, the budding salesman, and the technical expert on accountancy lie gulfs at least as great as those between the future teacher and the future medico.

This same situation holds true for the teacher of commercial subjects. There is nothing more in common between bookkeeping and stenography and typewriting than that they are both commercial subjects. Ability or interest

<sup>1</sup> "Suggestions Towards Meeting Some Specific Needs in the Curricula of Arts Colleges," No. 2, II, October 1928, p. 100.

in one does not in the least indicate ability in the other. A far better grouping would be that of classifying stenography with the languages and bookkeeping with mathematics.

The study brought out with a strong emphasis the fact that there is a large amount of duplication and overlapping of the required work in the various curricula. There were also some indications of padding in the various courses offered. Undoubtedly a certain amount of ground does have to be worked over again in order to permit correlation of previous work with that being undertaken. The gross duplication in many courses is so excessive, however, that it can in no way be justified on this basis. This is a serious defect in any curriculum and will inevitably tend to a lowering of the reputation of the field of work, and also to a loss of the morale by the students who are put through such a process. As, however, this situation is probably quite as serious in teacher-training curricula other than those preparing for commercial teaching, the matter is not taken up in detail in the present discussion. Much of the useless duplication will no doubt be eliminated when the period of excessive expansion in schools of education is lessened, for much of the padding is probably due to a desire to cope with the large numbers of students without proper administrative facilities for doing so. Nevertheless, the situation is one which ought to be given deep thought, for if long continued it will sap away the faith of teachers in post-training-period study. While it is the result of rapid growth towards a proper place for in-training study by teachers, it may easily be the germ for quite as rapid an infantile decay.

Another weakness of a similar character is that of excessive difference in terminology. Courses of study in different institutions and even within one institution which are essentially similar in content have entirely different names. This leads to difficulties in transfer of credit from one

school to another, to inability to make comparisons between schools doing the same kind of work, and gives the possibility for duplication and padding. The situation again is probably true to a certain extent at least of collegiate work in general rather than to teacher-training work, or to commercial teacher-training curricula in particular. It is, also, probably caused by rapid expansion in the work offered and in the numbers taking the curricula. It would seem, however, that we have arrived at sufficient maturity to deal with this situation now, and a conference of the various institutions doing work in the training of teachers for the purpose of overcoming this weakness would be very timely.

One of the most striking weaknesses of the commercial teacher-training curricula studied was the lack of facilities for observation and practice teaching. It does seem obvious that one of the most essential elements in the preparation of the teacher would be practice in the teaching of his subjects under proper guidance and under good working conditions. The study showed the following situation:

- 76 per cent of the business schools required an average of 4.3 points credit in observation and practice teaching.
- 63 per cent of the normal schools required an average of 5.3 points credit in observation and practice teaching.
- 54 per cent of the universities studied required an average of 6.7 points credit in observation and practice teaching.
- 45 per cent of the universities studied required an average of 4.2 points credit in observation and practice teaching.
- 58 per cent of all the schools studied required an average of 5.1 points credit in observation and practice teaching.

Studies made by Briggs<sup>2</sup> and by Blackstone<sup>3</sup> showed essentially the same situation.

When only a little more than half the schools require the type of work which would appear to be the very nucleus of teacher training, it would seem that they are very far

<sup>2</sup> Elizabeth Briggs, "Commercial Teacher Preparation Report," *Journal of Commercial Education*, 55, Nos. 8 and 9.

<sup>3</sup> E. G. Blackstone, "The Training of Commercial Teachers," *University of Iowa Extension Bulletin No. 141*, University of Iowa, 1926, p. 15 (out of print).



from giving the preparation to which they lay claim. Mere theory without even the slightest opportunity for self-participation in 42 per cent of the schools shows a woeful lack of correlation with the realities in these institutions.

Even more striking is the absence of any requirement for actual business experience for commercial teachers. Of the 97 schools studied only 12 showed any interest in having their students have a first-hand acquaintance with actual business conditions. The following were their standards:

Required indefinite business experience.....	5
Required sustained business experience during one half of the third year .....	1
Required three months between the junior and senior years.....	1
Required ten weeks' business experience.....	1
Recommended business experience.....	4
	<hr/> 12

As Blackstone points out after noting the same weakness in his study:<sup>4</sup>

Actual business experience is even less essential in the opinions of those responsible for the courses than is practice teaching. This may be one reason for the criticism often expressed by business men of the academic and impractical character of the work of the high-school business department. A parent would scarcely care to employ an inexperienced dentist or doctor to take care of his children, but he does not seem to object strenuously to having inexperienced teachers try to tell his children how business is operated.

Without giving further details the materials presented above give some raw material for a general analysis of the status of the commercial teacher. To the extent to which commercial teachers receive their training in the weaker curricula their status not only in the community as a whole but also within the teaching profession itself will be rather low. Fortunately, there are many indications showing that if the preparation of the commercial teacher has been less adequate in the past, it is rapidly becoming equal to the best types of preparation for other fields. The efficiency of

<sup>4</sup> *Op. cit.* p. 16.

American business methods is one of the most frequently given causes for our comparatively high standards of living. Considering the intimate relations between commercial teaching and business, it would not be surprising to see this phase of education become the leader not only in teacher preparation but also education as a whole. The splendid work being done in some places would tend to indicate that this expectation is not unjustified.

As it was pointed out in the beginning of this discussion, the type of teacher-training curricula given is only one of many mutually interinfluential factors in determining the character of our commercial education and the status of the commercial teacher. Salaries, certification requirements, tenure of office, supply and demand of commercial teachers in particular and all teachers in general, are only a few of many important factors. An advance in one factor without a rise in standards in the others would not do much good. Because of their close connection, however, any development in one will do much to raise the standards in others. The achievement of a greater degree of efficiency in our commercial teacher-training curricula will, therefore, probably be a strong factor in advancing commercial education to its proper position as a telic agent towards making education as a whole the powerful and beneficent instrument of social control which it rightfully ought to be and must become if humanity is to gain its ideal of greater social happiness.

## RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

**EDITORIAL NOTE:** *It is designed to make this department a clearing house (1) for information about current research projects of interest to educational sociology, and (2) for ideas with reference to research methods and techniques in this field.*

*Readers are urged to report their own research projects and to submit information regarding other projects of which they have knowledge. Suggestions as to methods of research will be welcomed and will be given publicity in this department.*

*From time to time this department will also make its readers acquainted with research resources in educational sociology. Contributions of this type from readers will also be welcomed.*

*It is desirable to make the program of research in educational sociology a coöperative one. To this end the names and addresses of those engaged upon research projects will usually be given in order that readers may exchange with them ideas upon related projects.*

### A STUDY OF INTRACOMMUNITY GROUPS

An interesting study of intracommunity groups is a new project being planned by Professor Floyd H. Allport of the School of Citizenship and Public Affairs of Syracuse University.

The project is concerned primarily with comparative methodology. The plan is to make a study of the groups both primary and derivative and the associations and institutions in a given community. One portion of the study will be made from a *psychological* standpoint and the other portion from the viewpoint of *sociology*. They will work independently, but upon the same community. While the aim of both will be to study the human groupings and associations present, the psychological investigator will proceed by a study of the social relationships, attitudes, and participation of *each individual* of the community separately. He will thus aim to discover the groups from the behavior of the separate participants and build them up, as it were, from this angle. The sociological investigator, on the other

hand, will try to envisage the groups, associations, and institutions as *such* from the very start, and proceed with the technique of studying their organization, method of functioning, purpose, accommodation, and efficiency.

The purpose of such a comparative study is to determine the relation of psychological and sociological techniques in the discovery of social fact, and to see in what cases they arrive at the same results and to what extent they may aid, supplement, or perhaps contradict each other. It is felt by some that there is an advantage in reducing the barriers between disciplines among the human sciences and bringing to bear upon the field of one science the conceptions and methodology of another. It is hoped that the present study may be a contribution in this direction.

The community selected is composed mainly of retired farmers and manufacturers together with the officers and employees of a few industries. The investigators are not primarily interested in cultural, ecological, or economic phases or in plans for welfare work or community organization. They really wish to find out the existence, present status, and functions of groups within the community.

#### A STUDY OF GIRLS' LEISURE TIME

Miss Henrietta Additon of the American Social Hygiene Association has just completed a study of the leisure-time schedules of more than 1,600 Brooklyn schoolgirls. This information was collected by the New York Welfare Council during a study which is being carried on of boys' work in Brooklyn. The questionnaires were answered by a cross section of average middle-class girls in the early adolescent period. An analysis of them should throw some light on the much discussed question of whether or not the home is breaking down and parents losing all control of their children. It seems to Miss Additon that those who come in contact with delinquent groups are prone to lay too much emphasis on the small number of girls who have deviated from accepted standards.

The schedule used for this material was adapted from that of the Crime Prevention Commission of Massachusetts.

#### A STUDY OF TYPICAL GANGS

A study of six average normal white gangs is being undertaken by Walter L. Stone, professor of boys' work of the Young Men's Christian Association Graduate School, Nashville, Tennessee, and Professor Baber of the same institution. By average is meant gangs composed of normal boys and not of the criminal class generally found only in large cities. These gangs are distributed as follows: two from a well-to-do vicinity, two composed of boys from middle-class families, and two from the poorer classes.

The investigators are seeking not only a life history of these gangs but a life history of individual members. They are attempting to show the influence of this type of group on the attitudes, appreciations, or character of each member.

#### ECOLOGICAL STUDY OF ROCKFORD, ILLINOIS, BY MAP MAKING

An attempt to explore the possibilities for educational sociology of the map-making method of ecological study has been begun at Rockford College. Using the methods developed by Robert E. Park and appearing in the books of Thrasher, Wirth, Ruth Shonle Cavan, Zorbaugh, and Vivien Palmer, a group at Rockford, under the supervision of Professors Jordan Cavan, C. W. Hayes, Alva Wood, and Ruth Shonle Cavan, are completing a dozen maps stressing the factors throwing light on the problems of educational sociology. Maps are completed or in process showing location of physical features and barriers, industries, social and educational institutions; indices of social disorganization (homicide, suicide, poverty); location of persons representing community leadership and prestige (large contributors to community chest, Daughters of the

American Revolution members, and other prestige groups); Boy Scouts (members, leaders, and institutions); juvenile delinquents, truants; a junior-high-school class, divided into those dropping out and those completing the course; and continuation-school enrollments.

Next year the study is to be continued by studies for each area of the number of cases and rates, by population and other bases, and correlations between rates.

Rockford, Illinois, with about 100,000 population, is regarded as representing a promising type of community for exploration with the ecological technique—small enough so that many items can be plotted without undue labor, with much background knowledge readily available through "old settlers," and giving results of maximum utility, since there are so many communities of approximately the same size in America to which results may be applied, or for which similar comparative studies may be made.



## BOOK REVIEWS

*Behaviorism: A Battle Line*, edited by WILLIAM P. KING.  
Nashville, Tenn.: Cokesbury Press, 1930, 376 pages.

Scholars in the church are marching as to war—against a theory. Some seventeen chapters by as many leaders in church, synagogue, and college are here fired at the enemy, scoring hits repeatedly. Among the militant disputants appear such well-known names as William McDougall, Ross L. Finney, Charles A. Ellwood, E. S. Brightman, Rufus M. Jones, and Bishop McConnell. The strategic objective of the attack appears in the following words of Dr. Josiah Morse, who fires the first shot in the introduction: "It is with the view of furnishing an antidote to the behavioristic poison that has been spread so freely among the young that this volume is sent forth to the public" (page 27). Some readers will be surprised at certain names that appear in the list of the enemy: Watson, Meyer, Weiss, Holt, Yerkes, Warren, Pillsbury, Dunlap, Bawden, Tawney, Colvin, Bagley, "and most recently Miss Calkins" (page 18). Apparently one is not to be permitted by Dr. Morse to believe in "the scientific study of behavior," lest he provide aid and comfort to the enemy, whereas the weakness of behaviorism is commonly supposed to be that it is not scientific enough to exclude irrelevant data from its problem.

Dr. McDougall, neglecting the negative instances, entitles his ammunition: "The Psychology They Teach in New York." The comic side of the war appears in two stories he tells. One concerns a dilatory student in a psychology class who, knowing nothing of the subject, caught the word *sarbons* from his bright fellows, and, when called on by the instructor, came off finely by uttering the same magic word, *sarbons*—only afterward to have it explained to him that *sarbons* were S-R bonds. The story reports the finding of statisticians that of all the boys now living in New York City one half will sooner or later become convicted criminals. Then this Scotch-English scholar takes his stories seriously: "I venture to suggest that the two stories are intimately related and really contain, when this relation is grasped, the essence of my discourse" (page 33). He proceeds to line up against the wall not only Thorndike, but the admittedly half-innocent Dewey and Woodworth, the one for his doctrine of habit, the other for sitting "upon every fence."

The attack moves forward in three divisions, dealing respectively with "The General Principles of Behaviorism," "Behaviorism and Value," and "Behaviorism and Metaphysics." Finney discharges his broadside from the second division against "Behaviorism's Silence as to Human Values." He writes, correctly enough, "Behaviorism has no place among its categories for the concept of purpose. . . . Thus, in its zeal to ren-

der psychology scientific, it has withdrawn from the field of psychology altogether" (page 177.) Ellwood judiciously sees some virtue in the foe: "Like many other methods it [behaviorism] may be valuable, but it is not adequate" (page 192).

The metaphysical detachment is smallest, carrying only four guns, but they are of long range. Brightman's shot hits the bull's-eye "... while such [extreme] behaviorism contributes much to the recognition of certain neglected or misunderstood aspects of experience, nevertheless, on the whole, it is a misrepresentation of experience, adding to it features which it does not possess and taking away from it features which it does" (page 330).

On the whole the battle line is drawn with unequal merit and the foe, rejoicing in the criticism which is recognition, will know where to make the counter-attack. Meantime Dr. King is to be congratulated on the forces he has rallied to the colors. The victory is assured, but as yet undated.

HERMAN H. HORNE

*The New Education in the Soviet Republic*, by ALBERT P. PINKEVITCH. Translated by NUCIA PERLMUTTER. New York: The John Day Company, 403 pages.

Before the lamented Czar Nicholas II took his final curtain call in 1917, public education in the Muscovite empire was, as every one knows, on a pathetically low level. Theoretically, of course, all the Russians had some sort of educational opportunity, but in a practical way, this was available mainly to the noblesse and the high *bourgeoisie*. With the advent of Lenin and company, and the passing of a few revolutions and famines, these lamentable conditions gradually changed. Not only were the educational gates hoisted high so that every one could now pass through, but the whole avenue to learning was dug up and freshly paved. Naturally enough, the materials employed in this job were strictly communistic. Education, indeed, became the lime and cement of the whole Soviet structure. Not only were youngsters of traditional school age put to work on their three R's, but special educational attention was now showered upon mewling infants and doddering adults. In this way, so hoped the Bolshevik founding fathers, the denizens of the Soviets would finally be turned into literate and rational communists. Just how all this was being done has often been explained to native Americans. Theresa Bach and Lucy Wilson, as well as the Drs. Dewey and Nearing, have all painted handsome portraits of the Soviet educational experiments. But all these savants, unfortunately, have stood in awe before their subject, and all of them, with the possible exception of Dr. Nearing, have reported not so much what they actually saw and experienced, but rather what they previously knew and now hastened to confirm. What they said in general was suspiciously eulo-

gistic, but the testimony they offered, while often brilliant, was as conflicting as that of a company of competing psychiatrists at a first-rate murder trial. The result was neither satisfactory nor fully convincing.

In Pinkevitch's book most of these faults are absent. Written for Soviet pedagogues and embryo-pedagogues, it looks at Russian education not dreamily but realistically. True, a great share of what is claimed represents a pious wish rather than a working actuality. Such verbs, for example, as *should* and *ought*, representing the optative, appear with astounding frequency. And yet, of all recent educational books that have appeared in America, I much prefer to admire this one by Professor Pinkevitch. Minus much of the windy nonsense that finds its way into so many of the pedagogical books of today, Pinkevitch's discourse is adorned with the fruits of wide reading. Certainly it is a delight to behold in English citations from the works of Meumann, Lay, Stern, Ertli, Mesmer, Ruehle, Schulz, Oboodchov, Blonsky, Kornilov, and hosts of other European educationists, who in the Old World have climbed the heights, but whose chief works are in the main unknown to monolingual Americans. Pinkevitch, as is to be expected, sticks close to the Soviet educational formula. For children this means (1) active participation in the building of their own lives; (2) stress upon socially useful labor; (3) establishment of intimate connections with contemporary life; (4) the study of nature and the development of a materialistic world outlook. Of the native Soviet educational dogmas, Pinkevitch obviously cannot dare to be too critical. The shadow of the Bolshevik censor is ever ubiquitous, and this no doubt is responsible for a fair share of Pinkevitch's optimistic conclusions. Thus, he is convinced that Soviet education is today free, and that its principles are basically sound. The truth, of course, is that as long as the minds of children are slammed shut to doings other than those participated in by the Soviets, education is not free. Free modern education means the right to study anything and everything—without interference.

ADOLPH E. MEYER

*The New Education in the German Republic*, by ALEXANDER and PARKER. New York: The John Day Company, 387 pages.

Lacking the majestic sweep of Pinkevitch's grand imagination as well as the flash of his incandescent erudition, this volume on education in modern Germany is, however, much better organized in its procedure. The very nature of the subject matter is, of course, of great assistance here, since education in Hindenburg's republic is not nearly as chaotic and contradictory in its elements as in the former homeland of Nicholas II. The aims, too, of Alexander and Parker are decidedly simpler than those of the Russian educationist. Thus, while the latter has

tackled the difficult job of harmonizing Soviet educational principles and practices and making them sound plausible to intelligent Muscovites, the former have simply chosen to throw their flashlight "on the spirit of the new education in Germany rather than to present the whole system in detail." With this goal before them the authors offer to the American reader a formidable array of interesting material. There are chapters on the Youth Movement, School Journeys, Sports and Recreation, Community Schools, the *Lietz Landerziehungsheime*, Folk Colleges, Selecting Gifted Children, Teacher Training, and Curricula. All of these give a fair, though by no means complete picture. The best chapter of all is the final one entitled "A Philosophy of Education." It is one which I heartily commend to all my fellow pedagogues who are seriously interested in the grave educational problems confronting the American people today. But especially do I recommend it to all those who are convinced that education is a very practical business, and that anything not visibly leading to practical results is useless, and hence should politely be kicked down the chute.

All in all, Alexander and his collaborator have turned out a first-rate piece of work, which in America at least has no adequate competitor. True, some of the conclusions drawn would no doubt startle the native Germans. But lest they take to their heels too quickly, or perhaps even give up their ghost entirely, let them take heed that all is well. All that they have to do "when they find statements which are in sharp contradiction to their own beliefs" is "to take any one conviction of their own and submit it to ten German educators chosen at random. If they do this they will find at least five radically different points of view." What could be simpler? And what, moreover, could be a fairer warning to this critic to go about his own affairs?

ADOLPH E. MEYER

*Survey of College Entrance Credits and College Courses in Music.* New York: National Bureau for the Advancement of Music.

The survey summarized in this book was made under the direction and supervision of the Research Council of the Music Supervisors' National Conference and made possible by a generous appropriation from the Carnegie Foundation. The purpose of the study was to aid high-school students interested in music by determining the practices of the colleges in giving credit for high-school units in music and in offering college credit for courses in music. The study reveals an increasingly liberal attitude on the part of a large number of the colleges. Of the 594 institutions studied, 16 per cent accept music credits for entrance, while more than three quarters offer musical instruction. What is the bearing of this upon advice to be given to the musically minded student in high school? To quote from the book, "Shall we not let him know that he can obtain recognition for his high-school work in music in about

8 out of 10 colleges and that for every one of the colleges which does not grant credit in music there is one institution of parallel value which does grant credit?"

The volume is largely devoted to tabular material from the replies received from the 594 institutions. These are so arranged that parents, principals, and others who advise students may easily ascertain the practices in vogue at the various institutions concerned. Peter W. Dykema, professor of music education at Teachers College, Columbia University, in a very readable digest of the figures obtained, points out that "the new attitude of the colleges towards music will automatically raise the standard of instruction of the school," and "that the universities strengthen the high-school courses when they allow credits for them as such action gives them the stimulus which comes from a recognition of good work." The volume represents a type of research much needed in our present efforts to procure better guidance for boys and girls interested in special fields of endeavor.

J. O. CREAGER

*Counseling the College Student*, by HELEN D. BRAGDON.  
Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1929, 162 pages.

The great need of the college personnel movement is research worthy of the name upon which programs, techniques, and activities can be based. The volume under review, although made under a research fellowship, hardly belongs in this category. A group of inconclusive studies are interwoven with unsubstantiated opinion in a presentation of counseling problems and needs which arise in dealing with women college students. The reader closes the book, however, without one established fact which can be used in forwarding the personnel movement. The lack of definitive thinking is particularly marked in the first chapter, which attempts to distinguish educational guidance, vocational guidance, mental hygiene, personnel work, and counseling problems and fails to grasp the unity and interrelation of all personnel activities. The chapter on the interview adds nothing and is in fact inferior to other similar studies already in print. The chapter on administration of counseling is based on opinion. On the whole, just another book of little value to the college personnel worker looking for definite help in meeting his daily counseling problems. To the beginner it may perhaps be suggestive of types of counseling problems arising in student personnel work.

DON H. TAYLOR

*Greek Physical Education*, by CLARENCE A. FORBES. New York: The Century Company, 1929, 264 pages.

Professor Forbes has given to physical education, and to all of education, a comprehensive picture of the place, nature, and extent of physi-



cal education in Greek life. His work is so well done and of such thorough nature that it becomes indispensable reference material for the history of the development of education, particularly of physical education. Using all the available literary, epigraphic, and papyrological sources, he has traced the history of physical education for a period of one thousand years covering three continents from Massila (Marseilles) in the East to Babylon in the West.

Wherever Greeks were congregated in sufficient numbers, gymnasia were found providing opportunities, publicly or privately, for boys, and in some cases for girls, to engage in supervised physical education.

With the decline of the gymnasium came the decline of the Greeks. Forbes attributes this decline to the unsympathetic attitude of the Romans, the philosophy of the Stoics, the attitudes of the Christians, and athleticism or professionalism. It is to be hoped that many such exact historic studies into the nature, extent, and place of physical education may be presented in the near future to supply the present great lack of authoritative material. Forbes is to be congratulated as a torch-bearer in the handling of this problem.

FRANK LLOYD

*Salvaging Old Age*, by LILLIEN J. MARTIN and CLARE DE GRUCHY. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1930, 175 pages.

This is a very sympathetic as well as informative presentation of the personal aspect of old age. Dr. Martin is herself an old woman, nearly eighty, and for more than a decade retired from a teaching position in Leland Stanford. She is now in charge of a mental-hygiene clinic in San Francisco. It began in 1920 as a child guidance clinic but seems now to have become an organization for guiding old people who have become problems to themselves and the community. The book is an argument for justice, pointing out that modern society is both wasteful and shortsighted in discarding the old with impunity. She feels that many of the aged who have been put on the shelf by industry have just reached the point where they have a contribution to make.

On the side of mental therapy the authors deal with the personal problem of the old person, those friction situations that bring him to the clinic. The clinic then searches for ways and means of helping him, through hobbies, new interests, change of situation, to get re-oriented. This part of the book becomes a new and unique plea for adult education. It is good as far as it goes, but like adult education can only affect those capable of responding; in other words, those with imagination and material resources. The trouble with many of our aged is that they have neither. For these the best that Dr. Martin can do is to recommend pensions, and that is what most of us have been recommending for a long time.

NELS ANDERSON



*Rural Social Science*, by GUSTAV A. LUNDQUIST and CLYDE B. MOORE. New York: Ginn and Company, 1929, 483 pages.

Rapid changes are taking place in the subject matter available for use in rural education. The above new book offers a vast amount of materials dealing with problems that are of immediate and vital concern to the learner. The authors have taken into account the various social forces in the whole social fabric that operate to create the rural situation. They show how rural maladjustments concern the total population as well as the ones immediately involved in it. In view of this, the book has a wider range of usefulness than its title would indicate.

SAMUEL BURKHARD

*The Principles of Psychophysiology*, by LEONARD T. TROLAND. New York: D. Van Nostrand Company, 1929, 404 pages.

This is the first of a series of four volumes on psychophysiology by Dr. Troland. The book is an expression of the facts and principles of psychology in accordance with the definite method of psychophysiology. It treats of the process of neuromuscular response, together with the familiar postulate that consciousness is correlated with, but distinct from, the cerebral factor in these physiological operations. The scheme is that of traditional physiological psychology brought up-to-date.

The aim of the book is first to examine the foundations of psychology as a science in order to arrive at a satisfactory statement of its problems and methods; second, to formulate a plan for treating these problems and facts which would thrust aside nothing that is of real human importance; third, to present, in accordance with this plan, the most important facts and theories of psychological science; fourth, to reconsider the question of the mind-body relationship from the physiological standpoint; and fifth, to formulate certain philosophical developments of all of these studies. Another aim of the book is to refute the position which is taken by modern behaviorists in psychology, and yet to preserve what is valuable in behavioristic practice. The author mentions that the behaviorists' view of psychology is a "fearful error."

This first volume is divided into three parts dealing with the definition of psychology, the methods of psychophysiology, and with perception. The second volume will be devoted to sensation, the third to cerebration and action, and the fourth to the philosophy of the mind-body relationship and will attempt to show how epistemology, cosmology, and ethics can be developed scientifically on the basis provided by the data of psychophysiology.

The book is well written, has a good bibliography, is unusually well printed, and should be read by all students of psychology. The next three volumes are looked forward to with keen anticipation. They should, with volume one, make a distinct contribution to the field of psychology.

CHARLES E. BENSON

*The Elements of Scientific Psychology*, by KNIGHT DUNLAP.  
St. Louis, Mo.: C. V. Mosby Company, 1927, 368 pages.

This is a book in fundamental psychology, exceedingly well written, intended for college students as well as laymen. The first chapter is devoted to an explanation of the different phases of psychology and is very valuable for those who have had some knowledge of psychology. However, it is suggested by the author that perhaps chapter I should be reread after the rest of the text has been completed. The specific purpose of the book is to introduce students to the elements of psychology, giving them firm ground on which to build. It deals with the general problems of psychology only. The special topics of learning, of child, animal, social and abnormal psychology, of sleep and dreams, and of applications to education and the arts and industries, have been purposely omitted. These are additional courses which the student should take. This textbook is intended to furnish the foundation upon which to build applied psychology.

In addition to a discussion of the various actions of psychology in the applied sense, there is a discussion of sense perception, the physiology connected with sensation, a rather complete discussion of the sensory measurements and their relation to the thought processes. There is an unusually good discussion of the field of consciousness. Habits and instincts are given their proper proportion of space. The chapter on the thinking process is exceedingly clear and lucid.

In the appendix there is a chapter on mental deficiency and mental disease which is brief but pointed. There is a good reference bibliography which should be of value to students of psychology. It is a book that should be read with profit by any one who desires to review fundamental, basic psychology.

CHARLES E. BENSON

*Applied Psychology*, by BERNARD C. EWER. New York:  
The Macmillan Company, 1927, 480 pages.

This textbook is intended as an applied psychology based upon a previous course in the fundamental background of the subject. It is well written and is a scientific presentation of psychology to everyday life. It covers a large number of subjects including learning, intellectual efficiency, control of emotion, and will power. Another part is devoted to psychotherapy, psychoanalysis, and religious psychotherapy, while still another part centers its attention on industry and commerce.

This is a book that is useful and well worth reading for those who have had a basic course in psychology and who desire a limited view of the applied side. At the close of each chapter there is a very helpful set of questions and exercises and there is a limited but selected bibliography in the appendix.

The mechanics of the book are exceedingly good. It would do very well for a first book in the general field of applied psychology and is a worth-while reference text.

CHARLES E. BENSON

*The Anatomy of Emotion*, by EDWARD WILLIAM LAZELL.  
New York: The Century Company, 1929, 267 pages.

This book is a very fine discussion of body-mind relationship. It sets forth the fundamental fact that many emotional disturbances are superimposed upon the physical condition. Part one deals with the general considerations of emotions, such as the philosophy of emotions; the origin of the emotions; the conflict of the emotions, and the development of personality, and the social emotions. This particular part of the book should be of interest to every one, not only to the professional student of psychology, but to the layman.

The second part deals with the destructive emotions, such as fear, anger, hate, criticism, blame, self-pity, oversensitivity, and the globe trotter. The psychology of these various emotions is set forth in plain, clear, and concise language.

Part three deals with the constructive emotions, such as the psychology of getting on with others; the psychology of success; the psychology of love, and the psychology of consciousness. The author sets forth the fact that there are two big emotions—those of love and fear. He emphasizes the fact that love is a constructive emotion while fear is destructive.

The purpose of the book is to give the lay reader some of the latest information about the emotions and the part played in them by the mind and the body. It is just as good to the college student of psychology as to the layman and may be very well recommended to all students of mental hygiene. The fundamental law which has been recently formulated—that there is no emotion or thought without a physical change and no physical change without a corresponding emotion or thought—is very clearly demonstrated.

CHARLES E. BENSON

*The Developing Personality in Boys: A Social Psychology of Adolescence*, by W. RYLAND BOORMAN. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1929, 257 pages.

This book is written by a successful director of program and research in boys' club work. Throughout the entire book the reader is made to feel that the author knows every inch of the ground that he covers.

Some of the interesting topics discussed are the following: the historical background and point of view; the organization of personality; the overorganization of personality; the unorganized and disorganized personality; and the reorganization of personality. The writer follows in the main the viewpoint of Dr. W. I. Thomas rather than that of other social psychologists. The book is particularly concerned with the "energy side" of a boy's development. It seeks to study the outcome of the adjustment continually going on in the individual by the internal and external forces. The internal forces are primarily of a biological and psychological nature; the external forces belong primarily to sociology and economics. The author's job has been to relate and interpret the forces engaged and the process of inner action between them as they affect the life of boys. Frequent references are made to, or quotations from, many eminent writers in the field of social psychology. At the end of each chapter suggestions are made for further study and research. Much of the material has been discussed in class sessions at the Young Men's Christian Association College in Chicago. The book is admirably written and can be of great value to students in social psychology and to men engaged in boys' group work. The reviewer is a bit doubtful about the wisdom of making reference to certain movements in the field of psychology which at best are only semi-scientific.

CHARLES E. SKINNER

*Individuality and Social Restraint*, by GEORGE ROSS WELLS.  
New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1929, 248 pages.

*Individuality and Social Restraint* is an interesting book that combines many valid principles of psychology and sociology. Both the individual and the structure of society are considered in this survey of the world of men. In the earlier chapters of the book the author describes the equipment of the individual in terms of psychology. He next examines the principles involved in the construction of human groups, their effect upon individuals, and the ways in which human beings more or less adjust themselves to the demands made upon them by the enveloping groups. The survey that is made of both individual and group psychology is from the standpoint of the adjustment of the individual to society. This material furnishes the basis for understanding and solving human problems, but it is not offered as a panacea for all ills. In fact, no single remedy exists; the appropriate solution to these problems must be evolved, discussed, or invented. All of this means intelligent reflection and much social experimentation. The style is clear and concise. Aside from some "loose" statements that appear from time to time, the book is well written and should be read by many students of human nature and society.

CHARLES E. SKINNER

*The Students Speak Out; A Symposium from Twenty-two Colleges.* New York: The New Republic, Inc., 1929, 269 pages.

Twenty-two seniors or recent graduates of twenty-two colleges, none of them more than three years out of college, here speak their minds as to what their colleges ought to have done for them but failed to do. The writers are neither sarcastic, Menckenesque, nor flippant—their seriousness and thoughtfulness stand out conspicuously in almost every sentence in the volume.

The twenty-two students, despite every effort to be more than just to the colleges that they attended, produce an overwhelming effect of unanimously finding two defects in college education. The more conspicuous of these defects is its aimlessness: its lack of definite objectives. The refrain running through the book might be summarized as: "Neither curricula, content of courses, nor procedure of teachers in the colleges bears any evidence of being guided by any definite objectives, valid or invalid."

The other outstanding defect that the students find is absence of even decent teaching. It would appear from what they say that the college professor or instructor who actually knows how to teach—whether by virtue of genius or because he has learned the technique of teaching—is rather a rarity.

*The Students Speak Out* is far from being a mere collection of fault-findings and objections. Its fundamental note is that of an almost evangelical hope for better things in the future. It is singularly unfortunate that the whole making of the book has been such as to render it most probable that the persons who most need to be influenced by it will never see it.

STEPHEN G. RICH

*Youth in the World of Men*, by MARIETTA JOHNSON. New York: The John Day Company, 1929, 304 pages.

The book is an explanation of the educational processes and methods used in the School of Organic Education at Fairhope, Alabama. The school aims to develop the pupils physically, socially, morally, and intellectually, according to the principles of natural psychology; that is, they learn to read and use numbers when the pupils' directed circumstances require it, which, according to the book, is at the age of nine or ten. The author claims that the satisfaction of one's own accomplishment should be the only reward offered to pupils as a stimulating influence. No public rewards, such as grades, badges, buttons, or degrees, should ever be given because they cause self-consciousness and may indicate failure or success when that feeling does not exist in the recipient. They also may create inferiority and superiority complexes.

According to the book, pupils should be grouped according to their social ages, making groups in which each is socially adjusted, comforta-

ble, and not self-conscious. These groups should be made irrespective of the pupils' I.Q.'s (which are never determined in her school, for there are no formal tests of any kind given) or previous intellectual accomplishment. The author says that pupils can study algebra even if they have not made a great success in arithmetic as measured by adult standards. They can study Latin and rhetoric without much accomplishment in technical grammar, a subject which she says should be delayed for college work anyway.

The author claims that all school work and play should be done at school from the first day in school up into college; no homework should ever be required. The home time should be used for home play, home work, and home and community social adjustments. Then the school, coöperating with the home, helps to complete the social adjustments and carries forward the intellectual development as fast as the physical energy of the pupils will permit.

LEWIS ELHUFF

*Science and the Unseen World*, by ARTHUR STANLEY ED-  
DINGTON. New York: The Macmillan Company,  
1929, 91 pages.

This little volume is the Swarthmore Lecture for 1929. Its distinguished author is professor of astronomy in Cambridge University. The lecture itself was given in the Friends' House, London, was widely heralded at the time in the daily press, and is a kind of personal supplement to the author's famous recent work on *The Nature of the Physical Universe*.

The author's general position is that though science is valuable and indispensable, it cannot affect the reality of the unseen world. Science deals today not with crude matter but with mathematical symbols that from the nature of the case cannot penetrate to the heart of reality. But in his own inner experience man knows at first hand what reality is like. "In comparing the certainty of things spiritual and things temporal, let us not forget this—Mind is the first and most direct thing in our experience; all else is remote inference" (page 37).

The argument opens with the best written section in the book—a majestic modern story of the origin of man; from stars to planets, to carbon, and finally to life. Then the viewpoint is developed that it is "not irreligion but a tidiness of mind which rebels against the idea of permeating scientific research with a religious implication." And since modern physics scorns a mechanical explanation of the ether, metaphysics may well scorn a mechanical explanation of the mind. The problem of experience involves not only a scientific but also a mystical outlook. (Note the quotation on pages 44-45.) "In short, our environment may and should mean something towards us which is not to be measured with the tools of the physicist or described by the metrical symbols of the mathematician" (page 47). Natural law is irrelevant to those aspects



of mind and consciousness associated with the word "ought." In its literal sense materialism is "long since dead" (page 50). The essential part of experience is not in physical entities but in truth and untruth, significance and value. Man has an inner sense of value which guides him, and he does not want a religion that deceives him for his own good. "The most flawless proof of the existence of God is no substitute for it" (page 70).

Because of the fame of the author this pronouncement will be widely quoted. It may be pointed out, however, that eminence in one field does not qualify a man to speak with authority in another field, and that Eddington knows much more about "science" than most of us do but hardly more about "the unseen world" than his Quaker brethren. As Einstein says he accepts Spinoza, so Eddington might say he accepts Kant.

HERMAN H. HORNE

*The Prestige Value of Public Employment in Chicago*, by  
LEONARD D. WHITE. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1929, 183 pages.

In any society one's occupation often determines his social status, and vice versa. There is nothing new in a statement such as this, but when made the subject of quantitative analysis with reference to jobs in the public service of a great city it does yield valuable returns. White and his students secured reactions from 4,680 persons in Chicago (2,621 males and 2,059 females) to twenty pairs of occupations. The proposition put to the cases by personally supervised questionnaire was: Wages or salary being the same, would you rather be a machinist, a chemist, a policeman, a janitor, a nurse, etc., in city employ or private employ? The choices were generally public employment versus private employment with some well-known company as Commonwealth Edison, Western Electric, Wrigley, and other Chicago firms. Each case was asked to give reasons for the choice made in each instance. In addition each case was asked to take an association word test. Thirty words were used. Of these twelve were dummies, seven were used to check against the Kent-Rosanoff list, and eleven were key words. Among the key words were "politics," "mayor," "graft," "alderman," "civil service," etc.

Public jobs were found to be less favored by —18.78 per cent among the males and —7.78 per cent among the females. It was found that as the education of the persons went up, the respect for city hall jobs went down. Foreigners liked such jobs more than Negroes, and Negroes more than native whites. At one extreme, unskilled laborers showed an index of +33.72 per cent favorable to public employment while executives were unfavorable to such jobs by —46.44 per cent. It was found that the lower down the economic scale people were, the higher they

rated public employment. People paying \$10 per month per room were —2.52 per cent while those paying \$25 per month per room showed an index figure of —26.42 per cent, which is about a tenth as favorable to city employment.

The word associations are given at length. They are amusing if one wants a good supply of epithets. Most of the responses are unfavorable. To words like "alderman," "mayor," "politics," the responses "rotten," "crooked," "dirty," "fake," etc., appear many times.

Aside from its intrinsic interest this study is important to educators who continue to talk in high-sounding language about the civic virtues and about building loyalty and patriotism. Here is public opinion being formed that is quite the reverse. Does this mean that educators are barking up the wrong tree? Perhaps this is not a problem for educators. On the other hand, if this negativism towards public employment exists on the part of the better part of the population, what hope is there for the improvement of our governmental service? These are important questions.

NELS ANDERSON

*The Older Woman in Industry*, by JOHANNA LOBSENZ.  
New York: Scribner's, 1929, 281 pages.

Thirty-five has become the danger line for the woman of Manhattan who must support herself. At that age, although often possessing valuable experience, she is to the employment manager, who controls her fate, classified as "the older woman," and hence not a desirable acquisition in the business world. Unemployment among older women in Manhattan who are dependent upon their own efforts for support is increasing, a serious social situation being created thereby. Johanna Lobsenz has undertaken in *The Older Woman in Industry*, which is limited to a study of conditions in Manhattan, to analyze the factors that endanger the future security of older women engaged in clerical and general office work, domestic service, selling, and industry, of which in Manhattan alone there are some 100,000. The study includes an analysis of the situation from the points of view of the employer, the employment agency, and the older woman, herself, who constitute the "industrial triangle" responsible for the situation. Miss Lobsenz's findings should prove extremely valuable in bringing about a better understanding among the three groups involved in this triangle. It should prove helpful also to the State and Federal officials concerned with the problem.

An interesting finding of the study is the fact that the Workmen's Compensation Law, "which makes it compulsory for firms to insure against possible claims for compensation on the part of employees who meet with accident or illness while at work," has actually operated against the welfare of older women, because, although the evidence submitted is to the contrary, employers state that older women are more

apt to encounter accidents and illness than are younger women. Insurance of the nature required under the law is usually supplemented by group insurance, and for this business concerns must pay higher rates where women are employed and higher rates based on the rising age of workers.

Of interest to educators is Miss Lobsenz's statement that middle-aged women in the highly specialized group are rarely affected by the specter of unemployment. Those affected are the ones who have failed to take advantage of the many facilities available in New York for advancing their education. Among the suggestions made by Miss Lobsenz for checking the growth of the problem of unemployment among older women are some concerning the responsibility of the schools and educators for creating public opinion about the matter, and for creating among the young people now under their guidance the consciousness of the problem which will confront them at thirty-five, and in some instances as early as twenty-five, if they reach these ages without advancing their educational growth in some specialized field as they go ahead on the routine jobs to which the majority of them fall heir immediately after they leave school.

LUCY J. CHAMBERLAIN

## NEWS FROM THE FIELD

The North Eastern Section of the American Sociological Society held a Conference of Teachers of Sociology at Brown University, Providence, R. I., on May 3 and 4. The conference considered the offerings in sociology.

Dr. George S. Counts of Teachers College, Columbia University, spoke before Rho Chapter, Phi Delta Kappa, of the School of Education of New York University at the annual banquet on April 26 at the Hotel Brevoort. Dr. Counts spent several months in an automobile, driving more than 7,000 miles in getting a close-up view of conditions in Russia. His topic was "Education and Social Planning in Soviet Russia."

In the March issue of this journal, on page 445 of the News, mention was made on the reports then at hand that the next annual meeting of the American Sociological Society would be held in Detroit. The editors desire to correct this report as an error. The place of holding the above meeting has, as yet, not been definitely decided by the executive committee of the Society.

A gift of \$300,000 has been made by John D. Rockefeller, Jr., to Princeton University for the endowment of the industrial-relations section of the department of economics and social institutions of the university. The work of this department is to study the human relations in industry.

### *Buffalo Conference on Marriage and the Home*

The Findings Committee of the Conference, held under the auspices of the Social Hygiene Committee of the Buffalo Council of Churches and the Marriage and Home Committee of the Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America, submitted the following recommendations:

An approach to the marriage problem not so much from the point of view of emergency measures and legal and ecclesiastical enactments on divorce, but rather an educational approach which will prepare people from their very childhood and youth for a successful family life. To this end we urge that a larger place be given in the curriculum of our church schools for teaching on marriage and the home, and commend the step taken by several of our denominations in providing for such instruction in the graded lesson material of religious education. We counsel the ministry of the church to conduct pastoral classes among their young people in preparation for home life, and classes for fathers and mothers in the field of parental education. We urge likewise a greater personal ministry to individuals particularly in extending personal counsel to young couples who come to be

married, so that hasty and unintelligent marriages may be prevented and well-considered marriages encouraged. Since many of our pastors feel themselves unprepared for the ministry that they would like to give in this direction, we urge upon all our theological seminaries a thorough training of the divinity student in relation to this future home ministration, particularly in the realm of mental hygiene, family case work, and sex instruction. For those already in the field, we strongly urge the continuance of social hygiene classes and conferences for pastors in order that they keep in touch with developments of family life and prepare themselves for practical instruction in the family situation in their parishes. It is to be hoped that ultimately there will be established in every city a clinic on marriage and the home, in which there will be a staff consisting of a minister of religion, a psychiatrist, a physician, and a social worker, who may render aid to any persons who may desire a consultation in regard to family plans and problems. Such a clinic should be on a paid, full-time basis. Pending such developments, however, voluntary experiments might be conducted in this direction in order that the church might give to the home the same expert technical advice in the religious realm that is now given to the community by specialists in other realms.

*National Conference of Social Work*

The fifty-seventh annual meeting of the National Conference of Social Work and Associate Groups will take place in Boston, June 6 to 14. More than forty groups in various fields of social work will meet at that time. The conference will be formally opened on the evening of June 8 by a presidential address given by Dr. Miriam Van Waters, referee of the Los Angeles Juvenile Court.

*Conference of Officers, Teachers, and Students of Professional Schools for Teachers*

The fourth annual conference of normal schools and teachers colleges was held at the Hotel Pennsylvania on April 11 and 12, under the chairmanship of Professor Ambrose L. Suhrie, head of the department of teachers-college and normal-school education in New York University.

## CONTRIBUTORS' PAGE

Dr. Frank Nugent Freeman is professor of educational psychology in the School of Education of the University of Chicago. Professor Freeman is a Canadian by birth. He received his A.B. at Connecticut Wesleyan and his A.M. and Ph.D. degrees at Yale University. He has been connected with the School of Education of the University of Chicago since 1909. He is an active member of several learned psychological and educational societies. He is connected with the editorial staff of *Journal of Educational Psychology* and the *Elementary School Journal*. Dr. Freeman was one of the pioneers in experimental education and made a significant contribution to the handwriting movement, as well as visual education. Some of his publications are: *How Children Learn*, *Visual Education*, *Mental Tests*, and he is co-author of the *Child Story Readers*. Dr. Freeman's students know him as a "great teacher."

Stephen G. Rich is a native of New York State. His A.B. degree was secured at New York University; his A.M. at Cornell; and his Ph.D. at New York University. Mr. Rich has had considerable experience as teacher and administrator in the schools of West Virginia and the Union of South Africa. He was sometime supervising principal of the schools at Essex Falls, New Jersey. He gave up teaching for business and is now a representative of one of the larger publishing houses.

Herbert A. Tonne is an instructor in commercial education of the School of Education of New York University. He received his Ph.B. at the University of Chicago; his A.M. and Ph.D. at New York University. Dr. Tonne has been a teacher of commercial subjects in the high schools at Elizabeth, New Jersey, and New Rochelle, New York.

Professor William Clark Trow received his Ph.D. degree at Columbia University. He has taught in the universities of Rochester, Cincinnati, Yale, and Michigan. For the past four years Professor Trow has been in the School of Education of the University of Michigan as associate professor of educational psychology. He is the author of *Scientific Method of Education*, *The Religious Development of Adolescence*, and *The Psychology of Confidence*.



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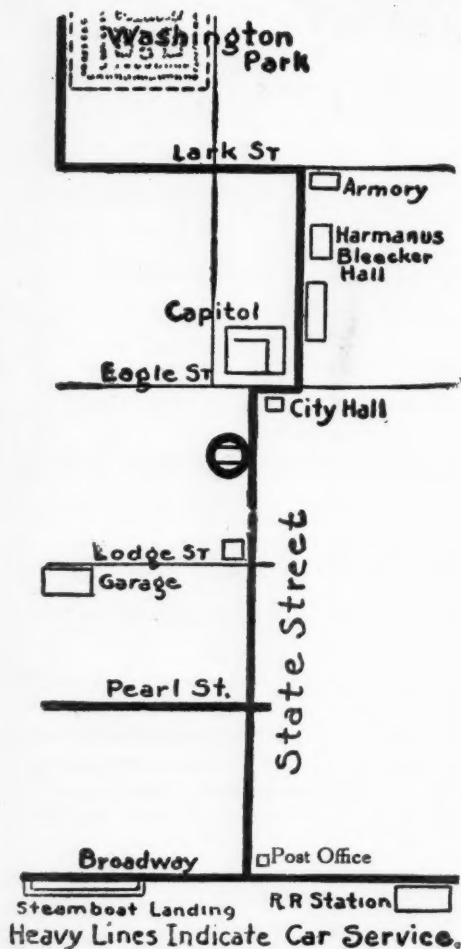
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†E. A. Ross is Professor of Sociology at the University of Wisconsin.

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